

**ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP AND CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP:
TWO CONSTRUCTS, ONE RESEARCH THEME?**

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ABSTRACT

The marketing and management literatures have investigated the notion of citizenship from an organizational perspective with the organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) construct, and from a social perspective with the notion of corporate citizenship (CC). Research on these two related aspects of citizenship has developed significantly over the past few years. Yet, studies of OCB and CC have grown independently of each other. This isolation is likely to result in (1) a confusion in terms, (2) no fruitful cross-fertilization of the two research streams, and (3) little insights into citizenship behaviors in general, regardless of their exact initiators and beneficiaries. In other words, an integration of these two bodies of research may enhance our understanding of citizenship initiatives in general, a knowledge which may then be applicable to various actors and contexts. Against this backdrop, the paper (1) examines the behaviors characteristic of citizenship in the OCB and CC literatures respectively, (2) compares OCB and CC, and (3) investigates potential linkages between these two concepts.

The marketing and management literatures have investigated the notion of citizenship from an organizational perspective with the organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) construct, and from a social perspective with the notion of corporate citizenship (CC). While OCB focuses on the efforts undertaken by employees to behave as good citizens within their organization, CC designates the initiatives undertaken by businesses to act responsibly in society. Research on these two related aspects of citizenship has developed significantly over the past few years. In particular, recent studies focus on the conceptualization of CC (e.g., Maignan, Ferrell and Hult, 1999; Marsden and Andriof, 1998; Warhurst, 2001), and OCB (e.g., Graham, 1991; Organ, 1988; Podsakoff et al., 2000), as well as on antecedents and outcomes of CC (e.g., Aupperle, Carroll and Hatfield, 1985; Brown and Dacin, 1997; Maignan and Ferrell, 2001; Stanwick and Stanwick, 1998; Turban and Greening, 1996) and on antecedents and outcomes of OCB (e.g., Konovsky and Organ, 1996; MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne, 1998; MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Paine, 1999; Netemeyer et al., 1997; Podsakoff et al., 2000).

The literatures on OCB and CC respectively have grown independently of each other. This isolation is likely to result in (1) a confusion in terms, (2) no fruitful cross-fertilization of the two research streams, and (3) little insights into citizenship behaviors in general, regardless of their exact initiators and beneficiaries. In other words, an integration of these two bodies of research may foster our understanding of citizenship initiatives in general, a knowledge which may then be applicable to various actors and contexts. Against this backdrop, the present paper first examines the behaviors characteristic of citizenship as depicted in the OCB and CC literatures respectively. In a second step, OCB and CC are directly compared. Finally, likely associations between these two concepts are discussed.

ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS AND CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP : TWO CHALLENGING CONSTRUCTS

Many different approaches have been proposed to define both OCB (e.g., Bateman and Organ, 1983; Graham, 1991; Moorman and Blakely, 1992; Organ, 1988; Williams, Podsakoff and Huber, 1986) and CC (e.g., Carroll, 1979; Maignan, Ferrell and Hult, 1999; McIntosh et al., 1998; Swanson, 1995; Wood, 1991). For each of the two constructs at stake, this section attempts to both highlight the dimensions common across conceptualizations, and pinpoint areas of contention. This discussion underlines the complexity of the CC and OCB constructs.

Organizational Citizenship: Domain definition

Behaviors characteristic of OCB have been assigned a variety of labels: spontaneous behavior (e.g., Katz and Kahn, 1966); extra-role behavior (e.g., Van Dyne, Cummings and Parks, 1995); civic organizational behavior (e.g., Graham, 1991); prosocial organizational behavior (e.g., George, 1990, 1991); organizational spontaneity (e.g., George and Jones, 1997) and contextual performance (e.g., Borman and Motowidlo, 1993, 1997). The earliest conceptualizations of OCB date back from the early 1980s. Bateman and Organ (1983) assigned the label of OCB to a type of behaviors formerly called spontaneous behaviors by Katz and Kahn (1966) and defined as “behaviors that are not specified by role prescription, but which facilitate the accomplishment of organizational goals” (p. 338). Such behaviors include acts such as helping co-workers with a job-related problem, accepting orders without a fuss, or tolerating temporary unsatisfying work conditions without complaining. Smith, Organ and Near (1983) developed a measure of OCB including two dimensions: *altruism* (helping specific persons) and *generalized compliance* to the organization (a more impersonal form of conscientious citizenship). These first definitions and

operationalizations of OCB launched a long-lasting debate on the exact nature and dimensions of OCB. It is beyond the scope of this paper to review all past frameworks (for a complete overview, see Podsakoff et al., 2000); instead, some core issues raised by past studies are discussed below (see Table 1).

OCB as Discretionary Behaviors? Even though Organ's (1988) and Graham's (1991) conceptualizations of OCB are probably the most acknowledged, they are hardly reconcilable: their respective definitions and measures of OCB differ significantly. Organ (1988) defined OCB as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (p. 4). Organ derived from an empirical study five dimensions of OCB: (1) *altruism* (helping specific persons), (2) *conscientiousness* (more impersonal form of conscientious citizenship) (Smith, Organ and Near 1983), (3) *civic virtue* (participation in the life of the company), (4) *sportsmanship* (tolerating less than ideal circumstances without complaining), (5) and *courtesy* (preventing work-related problems with others). In contrast to Organ (1988), Graham (1991) based the depiction of OCB on theoretical grounds (civic citizenship theory) and proposed three dimensions: (1) *organizational obedience* (the acceptance of the necessity and desirability of rational rules and regulations), (2) *organizational loyalty* (allegiance to the organization as a whole), and (3) *organizational participation* (active and responsible involvement in organizational affairs).

In his definition, Organ (1988, p. 4) directly asserted that OCB are discretionary in nature: "the behavior is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description (...); the behavior is rather a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable" (Organ, 1988, p. 4). This viewpoint has been shared by many other scholars who also believe that OCB include all **extra-**

role initiatives undertaken by individual organizational members to encourage organizational success beyond the duties outlined in job descriptions (e.g., Chen, Hui and Sego, 1998; Motowidlo and Van Scotter, 1994; Niehoof and Moorman, 1993; Snake, 1991; Staw and Boettger, 1990). Along with other scholars (Van Dyne, Graham and Dienesch, 1994; Werner, 1994), Graham (1991) has challenged this approach: she argued that OCB should also include **in-role job performance**. These diverging viewpoints illustrate two different ways of characterizing the domain of OCB.

Yet, differentiating between in- and extra-role behaviors is extremely subtle (Morrison, 1994; Van Dyne and Cummings, 1990). Firstly, some OCB dimensions (for instance, punctuality, compliance, creativity) “differ more in degree than in kind from in-role behaviors” (Podsakoff et al., 2000, p. 524). Secondly, many of the specific behaviors characterized by Organ (1988) as discretionary are actually perceived by employees as an integral part of their in-role requirements (Morrison, 1994). Furthermore, the perceived boundary between in-role and extra-role behaviors varies from one employee to another, as well as between employees and supervisors (Morrison, 1994). Finally, managers have been shown to consider OCB when evaluating the performance of subordinates (MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Fetter, 1991). These observations emphasize the difficulty of defining OCB in a unique format within and across organizations.

Challenging Behaviors as OCB? Whereas Organ’s (1988) definition of OCB includes only behaviors that **conform to management’s orientations** (for instance, punctuality, conscientiousness, cooperation, compliance), Graham (1991) as well as Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch (1994) include **an advocacy dimension**. In this case, employees who challenge existing power structures and decisions for the better are considered as good citizens (Graham and Verma, 1991; Van Dyne, Cummings and

Parks, 1995). With challenging behaviors, the idea emerges that OCB might in some cases be helping organizational success only in a second step, after having first questioned the current ways in which the organization is managed. Actually, continuous obedience and compliance to management (for instance passive endorsement of bad management) can lead to an organizational undesirable status quo (Swanson and Niehoff, 2001). However, in the interest of construct clarity, some authors suggested not to consider challenging behaviors in research on OCB (Van Dyne, Cummings and Parks, 1995) or “only in situations where change and innovation are salient” (Van Dyne, Graham and Dienesch, 1994, p. 795).

OCB as short-term behaviors? According to Organ (1988), employees help their organization by displaying behaviors such as being punctual, not taking extra-long breaks, or helping someone in need of immediate assistance. All these examples provide mainly **short-term organizational benefits** directed at assuring the regular functioning of organizational activities. Graham’s indicators of OCB reflect a time horizon different from Organ’s (1988) indicators : “Graham’s loyalty and participation dimensions have **longer term effects**” (Graham, 1991, p. 266). Loyalty builds support for the organization among important external constituency groups and participation may help the organization adapt to its environment (Graham, 1991) and may lead to changes in the organizational structure. Since the organizational structure and image are involved, these behaviors have much longer term implications and results than those proposed by Organ (1988).

Who benefits from OCB? The next area of controversy deals with the nature of those targeted by, and benefiting from, OCB. Some scholars suggest that OCB benefit **the organization as a whole** (Graham, 1991; Van Dyne, Graham and Dienesch, 1994), while others argue that OCB might be aimed at helping **individual organizational**

members (Chen, Hui and Sego, 1998; Settoon, Bennett and Liden, 1996; Werner, 1994; Wright et al., 1993). According to Graham (1991, p. 260), “instances of generosity directed at individuals would qualify as altruism or as some other forms of prosocial behaviors, but not as OCB”. This conflict has led Williams and Anderson (1991) to advocate a two-dimensional conceptualization of OCB with one dimension labeled “Organizational citizenship behaviors that benefit the organization in general” and one dimension called “Organizational citizenship behaviors that immediately benefit specific individuals”.

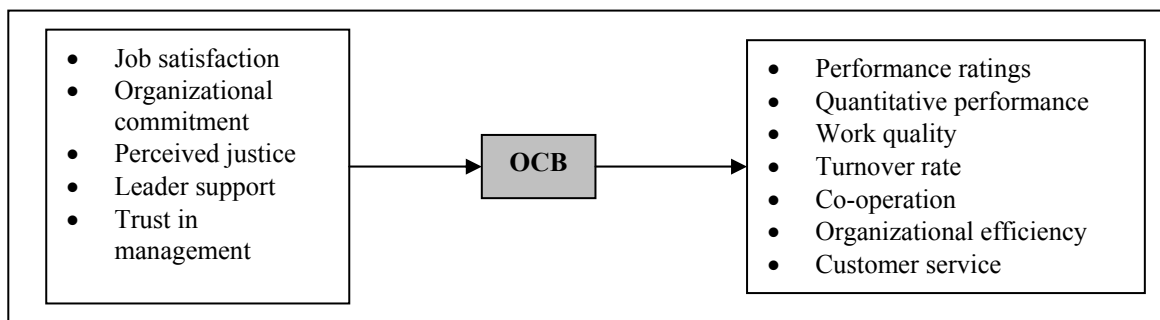
Table 1: Areas of disagreement among scholars about OCB domain

Questions	Yes	No
OCB as only discretionary behaviors?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In the earliest work (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ and Near, 1983), OCB was defined by two criteria: (1) behavior <u>above and beyond role requirements</u> that is (2) organizationally functional. OCB = “behaviors of a <u>discretionary nature</u> that are <u>not part of employee’s formal role requirements</u>, but nevertheless promote the effective functioning of the organization” (Organ, 1988, p. 4). OCB = “functional, <u>extra-role</u>, prosocial organizational behaviors, directed at individuals, groups, and/or an organization” (Schnake, 1991, p. 738). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> For Graham (1991), OCB is a global concept that includes <u>all organizationally relevant behaviors</u> of individual organization members. Are included: <u>job performance</u>, extra-role and organizationally functional behaviors, and political behaviors (Graham, 1991). According to O’Reilly and Chatman (1986), OCB include <u>extra-role and intra-role</u> behaviors.
OCB as challenging behaviors?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> OCB include an <u>advocacy dimension</u>: the <u>challenging of present situation</u> in order to improve the future and suggestions for change (Graham, 1991). Loyalty and participation may initiate <u>criticism</u> of the organization (Graham, 1991, p. 257). Van Dyne, Cummings and Parks (1995) propose the following classification of OCB: promotive (cause things to happen) or prohibitive behaviors (protective and preventative), and affiliative (interpersonal, cooperative, other-oriented) or <u>challenging behaviors</u> (change-oriented and can damage relationships). Van Dyne, Graham and Dienesch (1994) include different OCB dimensions: organizational obedience, organizational loyalty, <u>advocacy participation</u> (make suggestions for change and innovation), functional participation (volunteering for special work assignments), and voluntary participation (involvement in group activities and attending meetings). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> In the earliest work (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ and Near, 1983), OCB was defined by two criteria: (1) behavior above and beyond role requirements that is (2) <u>organizationally functional</u>. Examples of OCB: accepting orders <u>without a fuss</u>, or tolerating temporary unsatisfying work conditions <u>without complaining</u>. In Organ (1988), OCB includes only behaviors that <u>conform to management’s orientations</u> (for instance, punctuality, conscientiousness, cooperation, compliance).
Short term benefits only?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <u>Short-term benefits</u> such as not reducing short-term productivity, increasing the speed of familiarization of new hired people with the organization’s tools, helping someone in need of immediate assistance (Organ, 1988). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <u>Long-term effects</u> such as the promotion of organization’s products and services and the favorable representation of the organization to outsiders, as well as a better adaptation of the organization to its environment (Graham, 1991).
Is altruism a form of OCB?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <u>Altruism</u> is considered as a dimension of OCB by a lot of scholars: Bateman and Organ, 1983; Borman and Motowidlo, 1993; 1997; Chattopadhyay, 1999; George and Jones, 1997; Moorman and Blakely, 1992; Organ, 1988; Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1994; Smith, Organ and Near, 1983; Williams and Anderson, 1991. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> According to Graham (1991, p. 260), “instances of generosity directed at individuals would qualify as altruism or as some other forms of prosocial behaviors, <u>but not as OCB</u>”.
Is the organization the only beneficiaries of OCB?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> For Graham (1991), OCB is a global concept that includes all <u>organizationally relevant individual</u> behaviors of individual organization members. Limited definition of organizational loyalty (which is one of the OCB dimensions) that restricts the <u>target of helping behavior to the organization as a whole</u>, or its official representatives (Graham, 1991). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> “... functional, extra-role, prosocial organizational behaviors, directed <u>at individuals, groups, and/or an organization</u>” (Schnake, 1991, p. 738). Williams and Anderson (1991) distinguish between OCB that <u>benefit the organization</u> in general (OCBO) and OCB that immediately <u>benefit specific individuals</u> (OCBI).

Organizational Citizenship: Antecedents and Outcomes

Figure 1 outlines the main antecedents and consequences of OCB as pinpointed in past research (for a comprehensive review, see Podsakoff et al., 2000). Antecedents of OCB can be categorized in four major groups (Podsakoff et al., 2000): (1) individual characteristics (e.g., employee attitudes, role perceptions); (2) task characteristics (e.g., feedback, routinization, intrinsically satisfying task); (3) organizational characteristics (e.g., group cohesiveness, perceived organizational support, rewards outside the leader's control), and (4) leadership behaviors (e.g., articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, fostering acceptance of group goals). Employees' cognitive responses to their work environment characteristics make up one of the antecedents of OCB the most commonly investigated in past research. In particular, variables such as organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and perceptions of fairness have been demonstrated as being positively associated with OCB (e.g., Bateman and Organ, 1983; MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne, 1998 ; Organ, 1988; Smith, Organ and Near, 1983). One key underlying idea is that employees are inclined to respond positively, for instance by displaying OCB, to leadership that facilitates trust and a sense of justice (Swanson and Niehoff, 2001).

Figure 1: Important antecedents and consequences of OCB (adapted from Swanson and Niehoff, 2001; Podsakoff et al., 2000).



Two types of consequences of OCB have been examined in the literature: the influence of OCB on (1) managerial evaluation of employee performance, and on (2) organizational performance and success. MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Fetter (1991, 1993) investigated the effects of OCB and objective sales productivity on managers' evaluations of salespersons' performance. They concluded that OCB accounts for a larger portion of the variance in managerial evaluation than does sales productivity (1993). The existence of relations between OCB and organizational effectiveness (measured by financial efficiency indicators and customer service indicators) has been highlighted in different sectors : insurance agency, paper mill work crews, pharmaceutical sales teams, limited-menu restaurants (Podsakoff, Ahearne and MacKenzie, 1997; Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1994; Walz and Niehoff, 1996).

Overall, even though the exact scope of the OCB construct remains an area of contention, much agreement can be found as to the antecedents and likely benefits of OCB.

Corporate Citizenship: Domain definition

The behaviors characterizing good CC have been investigated under various labels : corporate social responsibility (e.g., Carroll, 1979; Sethi, 1979), corporate social responsiveness (e.g., Frederick, 1978; Strand, 1983), corporate social performance (e.g., Stanwick and Stanwick, 1998; Wood, 1991) and corporate citizenship (e.g., Maignan, Ferrell and Hult, 1999; Reilly and Myron, 1994). The earliest conceptualizations of CC have been developed in the fifties in the business responsibility research area. Bowen (1953) argues that businessmen have the obligation to pursue desirable policies in terms of societal objectives and values. Carroll (1979, p. 500) specifies that obligations of businesses “encompass the economic, legal, ethical and discretionary expectations that society has of organizations at a given point in time”. Businesses have the (*economic*)

responsibility of being profitable (by producing goods and services that society wants). They have to follow the rules of behavior considered as appropriate by laws (*legal* responsibilities) and ethical standards (*ethical* responsibilities). Firms are also expected to participate in the improvement of society beyond the minimum standards set by the economic, legal and ethical responsibilities (*discretionary* responsibilities: contribute resources to the community, improve quality of life).

This first body of research (corporate social responsibility) launched a long-lasting debate on the exact nature and dimensions of CC (see Table 2). While CC is a commonly used term (e.g., Andriof and MacIntosh, 2001; Brandeleer, 1997; MacIntosh et al., 1998), no single definition has been widely accepted. The following paragraphs present some of the similarities and differences found across CC conceptualizations.

CC: social principles, processes, and impacts? Authors such as Carroll (1979) or Wood (1991) viewed CSR as made of three main dimensions: (1) the principles which define a firm's public responsibility, (2) the processes employed by businesses to keep abreast of social issues and implement principles, **and** (3) the programs and policies employed to evaluate the impact on society of the firm's activities. In contrast, when investigating CC, other scholars show concern only for social responsibility principles, for the concrete implementation of these principles in corporate operations, **or** for the impact of business activities on society (e.g., Drumwright, 1994; Menon and Menon, 1997; Robin and Reidenbach, 1987). Past studies have not specified the scope of CC; therefore, it remains unclear whether this construct designates the principles defining appropriate behavior in society, the organizational processes facilitating the application of these processes, or the impacts of business operations on society.

CC : maximizing the good or limiting the evil ? Businesses can attempt to act as good citizens by (1) **limiting the negative effects** of their productive activities on

society, and (2) **actively contributing** to society's welfare. There has been disagreement in past marketing literature as to which of these two approaches falls within the scope of CC. For example, Menon and Menon (1997, p. 57) argue that "the concept of social responsibility is now accepted as the business response to [...] externalities" defined as the non-market effects of business activities (e.g., pollution). In contrast, in her analysis of socially responsible buying, Drumwright (1994, cf. p. 1) suggests that CC reflects business' willingness to take into account public consequences of organizational activities and to bring about positive social change.

CC: obligation or benevolence? Another area of contention consists in determining whether CC represents an obligation, an act of benevolence, or both. Some authors depict CC as resulting from the **necessity** to conform to existing social norms (e.g., Handleman and Arnold, 1999 ; Robin and Reidenbach, 1987 ; Wood, 1991), others limit the scope of CC to **voluntary initiatives** aimed at furthering the common good beyond the minimum activities required for the firm to survive (e.g., Drumwright, 1994 ; McWilliams and Siegel, 2001). Yet other scholars argue that the concept includes **both the benevolence and the obligation** approaches (e.g., Swanson, 1995). To date, scholars have brought little insights to determine whether CC includes only those actions justified by proactive moral arguments (to do the right thing), or whether CC also encompasses behaviors driven by utilitarian purposes (e.g., to gain legitimacy and support among certain constituents).

CC: philanthropy or strategic tool? Some business leaders and researchers equate **philanthropy** with CC (Carroll, 1998) and view CC solely as a discretionary activity. Those companies engage in philanthropic initiatives or community investment only when resources are available (Rostami, 1998) and believe they are acting as good corporate citizens. Yet, according to Carroll's (1979) concept of business

responsibilities (economic, legal, ethical and discretionary), philanthropic behaviors represent only a part of the CC company's responsibilities (e.g., Carroll, 1979; Carroll, 1998; Maignan, Ferrell and Hult, 1999; Wood, 1991). In the same way, McIntosh et al. (1998, p. 277) suggest that "there is a new model of CC **beyond philanthropy and voluntarism**". As suggested by many authors, we might think that CC is forming a continuum from "minimal citizenship" at one extreme (compliance with the laws governing the operations of the business) to "discretionary citizenship" (philanthropy and charitable giving), and to "strategic citizenship" at the other extreme (citizenship integrated into business; management of the relationships between the firm and its communities, as integral part of the functioning of the business) (McIntosh et al., 1998, p. XXII).

CC: social or stakeholder responsibility? A first group of scholars believe that businesses have a responsibility **toward society in general** (e.g., Carroll 1979, Handelman and Arnold 1999 ; Strand, 1983). For example, Robin and Reidenbach (1987) define corporate social responsibility as the set of generally accepted relationships, obligations, and duties "that relate to the corporate impact on the welfare of society"(p. 45). In contrast, other authors argue that businesses have moral duties only **toward their stakeholders**, those actors that can directly or indirectly affect, or be affected by, corporate activities (e.g., Donaldson and Preston, 1995; Jones, 1995). Clarkson (1995, p. 102) argues that society is at "a level of analysis that is both more inclusive, more ambiguous, and further the ladder of abstraction than a corporation itself". Based on this observation, Clarkson suggests that businesses are not responsible to society as a whole, but only to their stakeholders.

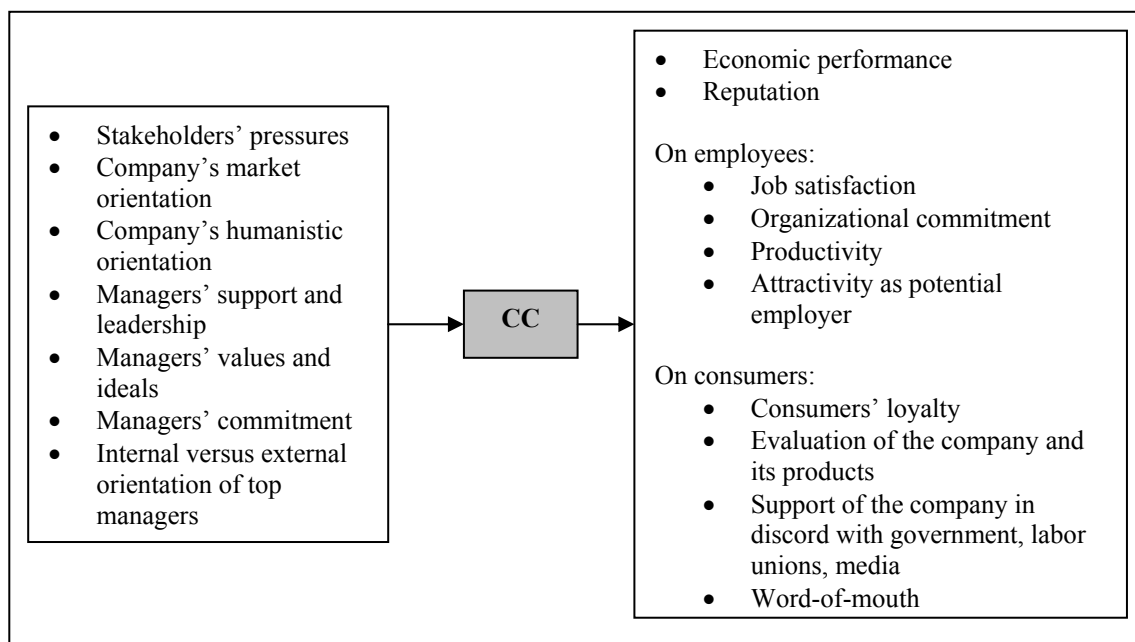
Table 2: Areas of disagreement among scholars about CC domain.

Questions	Yes	No
CC as social principles, processes, and impacts?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The social performance model is “a business organization’s configuration of principles of social responsibility, processes of social responsiveness, and <u>policies, programs and observable outcomes</u> as they relate to the firm’s societal relationships” (Wood, 1991, p. 693). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> CSR refers to the set of generally accepted relationships, obligations, and duties that relate to the corporate impact on the welfare of society (Robin and Reidenbach 1987, cf. p. 45).
CC as limiting the evil ?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Menon and Menon (1997, p. 57) argue that "the concept of social responsibility is now accepted as the <u>business response to [...] externalities</u>" defined as the non-market effects of business activities (e.g., pollution). Khireche-Oldache (1998) identifies different kinds of companies’ attitudes toward the question of the environment. The <u>defensive attitude</u> is observed when companies analyze the environmental fact as a <u>threat against which companies have to be protected</u>. This kind of companies invests in <u>protection</u> and <u>insurance</u>. 	<p>Not only limiting the evil but also maximizing the good.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> “Socially responsible buying is that which attempts to take into account the public consequences of organizational buying or bring about positive social change through organizational buying behavior” (Drumwright, 1994, p. 1). CSR is the obligation of the firm to use its resources in ways to benefit society, through committed participation as a member of society, taking into account the society at large, and <u>improving welfare of society at large</u> independently of direct gains of the company” (Kok et al., 2001).
CC as an obligation?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> “Business is a moral activity, based on profit-making, and has an <u>obligation</u> to act for social betterment” (McIntosh et al., 1998, p. 50). “CSR is the <u>obligation</u> of the firm to use its resources in ways to benefit society, through committed participation as a member of society, taking into account the society at large, and improving welfare of society at large independently of direct gains of the company” (Kok et al., 2001). CSR is the managerial <u>obligation</u> to take actions that protect and improve both the welfare of society as a whole and the interest of organizations (Davis and Blomstrom, 1975). 	<p>Not an obligation, but benevolence.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A proactive philosophy encourages the business to anticipate future responsibility, and to often do <u>more than is required</u> (Carroll, 1979). Social responsibility = “intelligent and objective concern for the welfare of society that restrains individual and corporate behavior from ultimately destructive activities, <u>no matter how immediately profitable</u>, and leads in the direction of positive contributions to human betterment, variously as the latter may be defined” (Steiner, 1972, p. 19).
CC as philanthropy?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> “Philanthropic giving is an activity that many in the business community loosely equate with corporate citizenship” (Carroll, 1998, p. 5). “Some business leaders continue to view CSR as a discretionary activity – to be engaged in when better financial performance results in the availability of resources for philanthropic initiatives, employee relations or community investment” (Rostami, 1998, p. 1). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Corporate Social Responsibility is “not checkbook philanthropy [...], it arises from a deeply held vision by corporate leaders that business can and should play a role beyond just making money” (Andriof and Marsden, 2000, p. 5).
CC as social responsibility?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Social responsibility = “intelligent and objective concern for the welfare of <u>society</u> that restrains individual and corporate behavior from ultimately destructive activities, no matter how immediately profitable, and leads in the direction of positive contributions to <u>human betterment</u>, variously as the latter may be defined” (Steiner, 1972, p. 19). Good CC can be defined as understanding and managing a company’s wider influences on <u>society</u> for the benefit of the company and <u>society as a whole</u> (Marsden and Andriof, 1998). CSR is the obligation of the firm to use its resources in ways to benefit society, through committed participation as a member of society, taking into account the <u>society at large</u>, and improving welfare <u>of society at large</u> independently of direct gains of the company” (Kok et al., 2001). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Social performance refers to the extent to which an organization meets the needs, expectations and demands of <u>certain external constituencies</u> beyond those directly linked to the company’s products/markets (Ullmann, 1985). CC is concerned with the relationship between companies and society – both the <u>local community</u> which surrounds a business, and whose members interact with its <u>employees</u>, and the wider and increasingly <u>worldwide community</u> (McIntosh et al., 1998) Good CC is exercised mainly toward the <u>firm’s stakeholders</u> (Clarkson, 1995).

Corporate Citizenship: Antecedents and Outcomes

Figure 2 provides a brief overview of the antecedents and consequences of CC highlighted in past research. Antecedents of CC can be put into three different categories: (1) stakeholders' pressures, (2) corporate culture and (3) top management orientations. Firstly, stakeholders exercise pressures in favor of improved CC initiatives. For instance, the threat of government regulations in the sector of activities of a company is an important motivating driver for companies to care more about their environmental responsibilities (Drumwright, 1994). Companies want to avoid constraining laws that will have negative impacts on their performance (by reducing productivity and imposing new costs). Consumers are another group advocating increased CC. According to a Ipsos/Fleishman-Hillard survey (1999), 86% of European consumers desire to buy products from companies that engage themselves in social actions. Another example suggesting that consumers want to act in conformity to certain values is the success of the American consumption guide "Shopping for a better world": four readers on five have already decided to replace one brand by another in their buying habits (CB News, 2000).

Figure 2: Important antecedents and consequences of CC.



Second, Maignan, Ferrell et Hult (1999) show that market-oriented corporate cultures –whose values put customers at the center of their strategy and operations – are more inclined to invest in CC than non or less market-oriented firms. In the same way, the more humanistic the organization's culture, the more likely is the firm to put into place CC practices (Maignan, Ferrell and Hult, 1999). Finally, the top managers' support and leadership are drivers of CC (Drumwright, 1994). Managers' values and ideals also seem to affect the extent to which a company adopts a CC strategy (Robin and Reidenbach, 1997). Furthermore, the managers' commitment (in number of hours dedicated to social and environmental issues) is a good premise to the establishment of CC practices in a company (Greening and Gray, 1994).

Different types of consequences of CC have been examined in the literature. First, a lot of research has been conducted about the financial effects of CC on organizational performance (e.g., Abbott and Monsen, 1979; Arlow and Gannon, 1982; Aupperle, Carroll and Hatfield, 1985; Stanwick and Stanwick, 1998; Ullmann, 1985). Reviews of past research suggest that the relation between CC and economic performance is far from being established univocally (Aupperle, Carroll and Hatfield, 1985; Griffin and Mahon, 1997). Some researchers pinpoint a positive relation because of potential sales increasing and cost reductions (e.g., Maignan and Ferrell, 2001; Spencer and Taylor, 1987 ; Waddock and Graves, 1997 ; Wokutch and Spencer, 1987). Some others observe a negative relation because of the costs resulting from investments in CC (e.g., Davidson et Worrell, 1988; Vance, 1975). Finally, a third group of researchers show that there is no relation at all between CC and economic performance (e.g., Aupperle, Carroll et Hatfield, 1985 ; Davidson et Worrell, 1990; McGuire, Sundgren et Schneeweis, 1988).

The impacts of CC activities on stakeholders' attitudes and behaviors toward the corporate citizen company have been investigated, even though research on this topic is not well-developed. CC seems to influence the attractiveness of the company as a potential employer (Turban and Greening, 1996) as well as it has an impact on the degree of organizational commitment of current employees (Maignan, Ferrell and Hult, 1999; Maignan and Ferrell, 2001). With respect to consumers, the awareness of CC practices appears to have a positive influence on (1) consumers' evaluation of product attributes (Brown and Dacin, 1997), (2) attitudes toward the firm (Creyer and Ross, 1997; Murray and Vogel, 1997), and (3) corporate reputation (Fombrun and Shanley, 1990).

Overall, much uncertainty remains as to the scope, antecedents, and potential outcomes of CC.

ORGANIZATIONAL AND CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP: TWO COMPARABLE CONSTRUCTS

OCB and CC present the risk of being confused because of their similar appellation. For instance, when Strand (1983) speaks about "organizational adaptations to the social environment" and "organizational social responsibility", inexperienced readers could be confused about the topic of this paper: is it about organizational citizenship behaviors or corporate citizenship? Finding a source for what exactly constitutes each type of citizenship behaviors would help resolve important construct validity problems so that future research on OCB and on CC might proceed. In order to achieve this objective, different features of citizenship behaviors will be examined and compared: the nature, the actors, the beneficiaries, the objectives and the rewards and sanctions associated with such behaviors. Table 3 summarizes the results of the confrontation between OCB and CC characteristics.

Table 3: Results of the OCB and CC comparison.

Criteria	OCB	CC
Nature	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ <i>Based on covenants - social contract</i> between business and society ➤ <i>Behaviors of helpfulness</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ <i>Based on covenants - social contract</i> between employees and employer ➤ <i>Behaviors of helpfulness</i>
Actors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ <i>Organizational members</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Organization ➤ <i>Organizational members</i>
Beneficiaries	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ <i>Organization</i> ➤ Co-workers ➤ Employees themselves <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “<i>Impression Management Tool</i>” • <i>Act in concordance with personal values</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Society as a whole ➤ Organizational stakeholders ➤ Organization itself <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “<i>Marketing Tool</i>” • <i>Act in concordance with organizational values</i>
Rewards and sanctions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ No rewards/sanctions ➤ Some scholars show OCB impact on managers’ evaluations of employees’ performance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Rewards and sanctions from the market

What is the nature of citizenship behaviors?

In ordinary usage, citizenship describes the status of belonging somewhere and it implies both rights and responsibilities (Graham, 1991). OCB could be positioned as the organizational equivalent of citizen responsibilities and CC as citizen responsibilities of companies. According to some political theorists, citizenship behaviors are based on “covenantal” relationships (Graham, 1991; Swanson and Niehoff, 2001), characterized by the expectation that citizens have “moral obligations and responsibility to demonstrate a special concern for other’s interests above their own” (Graham, 1991, p. 252). Therefore, both OCB and CC call for *behaviors of helpfulness* (Swanson and Niehoff, 2001), dedicated to serve the common good and aimed at enhancing the quality

of life in the community in which actors evolve. These behaviors can take the form of an active participation and involvement in the local environment, facilitating decisions for betterment, showing an interest in common affairs, helping others and respecting their rights. Furthermore, citizenship is based on the ideal of a constructive partnership between citizens and their community (Swanson and Niehoff, 2001): a partnership governed by duties to the collective as well as by pursuit of self interest. In that way, *corporate citizens* have to be responsible players in society while pursuing managerial autonomy and organizational self-interest; *organizational citizens* have to be responsible players in their organization but pursue personal objective of promotion and pay rises as well.

Who is acting responsibly?

Organizational citizenship refers to behaviors displayed by *organizational members*, while CC designates a type of behaviors displayed by *organizations* toward the society in which they operate. The principal actors of OCB and CC are then different: organizational citizens are employees in organizations that may or may not act as good corporate citizens. However, since the organization is an artificial creation, all its behaviors come from its members and decision-makers (Reilly and Myron, 1994, p. 41). As exemplified in past research (e.g., Drumwright, 1994), CC is often the result of the efforts of a few individuals in the organization; hence, individuals also play a very important role in CC.

Who is benefiting from citizenship?

Beneficiaries of both citizenship behaviors are quite different. Organizational citizens behave in a manner that is helpful to the organization. In this case, the *company* is always the main “winner”, while the beneficiaries of CC are mainly the *organizational stakeholders* (Clarkson, 1995; Maignan, Ferrell and Hult, 1999). The

corporate citizen organization behaves in a way that serves the common interests of the community.

However, both OCB and CC may be used by *actors for their own benefit*; for instance, actors may engage in citizenship behaviors (OCB for employees and CC for companies) in order to obtain personal image and economic benefits. When employees are displaying OCB, they may not have the good of the organization in mind, but rather their own career objectives (Swanson and Niehoff, 2001). They may use OCB as an impression management tool (Bolino, 1999) to improve the image that others have of them and to receive rewards and promotion (MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Fetter, 1991, 1993). Similarly, firms may use CC as “a marketing tool” (Polonsky and Wood, 1999) to differentiate products from those of competitors (Osterhus, 1997) or to increase their financial performance (e.g., Collins, 1994; Murphy, 1997; Waddock and Graves, 1997). Good corporate citizen companies could be rewarded for instance by greater consumers’ support (e.g., Maignan, Ferrell and Hult, 1999; Waddock and Graves, 1997).

Yet, actors do not need to necessarily view OCB and CC as fruitful to engage in those activities. Citizenship behaviors can also be motivated by *personal or organizational values*. In the case of OCB, individuals may be driven to help the organization by their own work ethic. They may also be encouraged by an organizational culture encouraging harmony and conviviality. Similarly, as emphasized by Swanson (1995), many businesses view CC as part of their duties, and base their commitment to society –or to their stakeholders- on organizational values favoring a humanistic orientation. Therefore, both OCB and OC can be used purely as impression management tools, even though they may not be motivated only by such instrumental purposes.

What are the rewards (and sanctions) associated with (no) citizenship behaviors?

In the case of OCB, Organ's definition (1988) is clear: OCB are "not directly or formally recognized by the formal reward system". Punishment for failing to engage in OCB seems unlikely (Schnake, 1991). Although displaying organizational citizenship seems to be a "*gratuitous*" act, CC programs are often *rewarded* by customers (Collins, 1994; Maignan, Ferrell and Hult, 1999; Murphy, 1997) and for irresponsible companies, the threat of being evicted from the market exists. This sanction is summarized in the Iron Law of Responsibility (Davis, 1973, p. 314): "in the long run, those who do not use power in a manner which society considers responsible will tend to lose it". Rewards and punishments seem to be attributed for CC acts but for OCB, rewards and sanctions are more informal (informal inclusion of OCB in managerial evaluation of employees' performance, e.g., MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Fetter, 1991, 1993).

At this stage, there remains no doubt that **these two popular constructs are really distinct**, even though they are both citizenship behaviors and have common basic characteristics. Citizenship describes a set of behaviors that can be performed within or outside the organization. OCB and CC frameworks involve different players (employees/organization) and benefit to diverse entities (organization/stakeholders). Furthermore, actors behave in a distinct way and do not exactly pursue the same objectives. In next section, our objective is to propose interesting directions for future research in terms of analysis of paths of relations between CC and OCB.

FROM CORPORATE CITIZENSHIP TO ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP

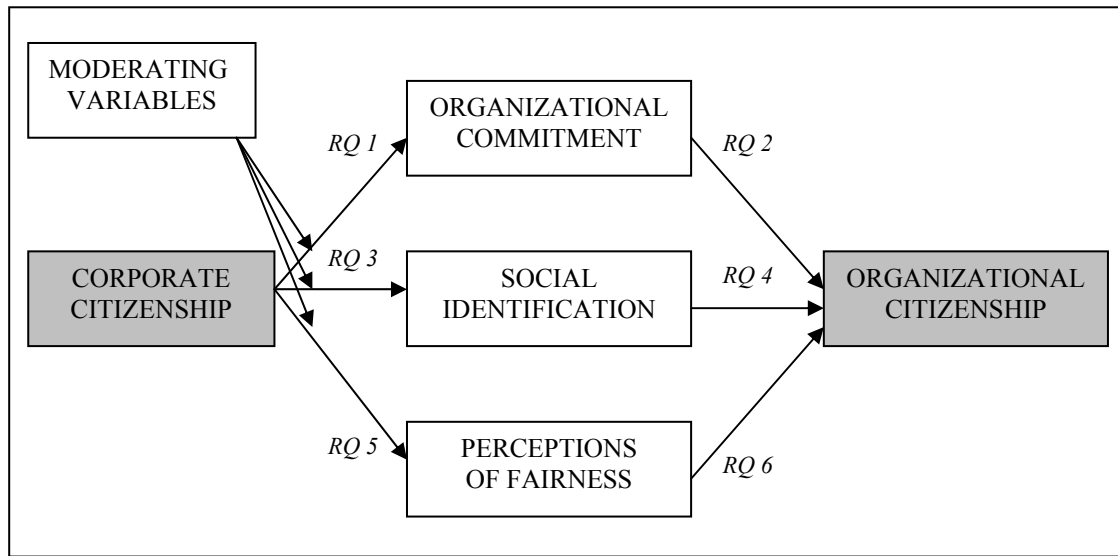
Inasmuch as CC may be desirable for society as a whole, it is unlikely to be embraced by a large number of organizations unless it is associated with concrete benefits. This section presents a conceptual framework to guide future research examining whether and how CC may be a form of internal marketing and more precisely how CC may affect employees' OCB. Even though CC and OCB are two distinct constructs, some of their underlying dimensions suggest the existence of potential linkages between both behaviors at stake.

Very little research can be found that indicates how employees' attitudes and behaviors are affected by their organization's CC. Preliminary research has demonstrated that individuals would rather work for an organization known for its proactive CC (Turban and Greening, 1996). On the basis of a managerial survey, Maignan, Ferrell and Hult (1999) have extended research to the potential effects of CC on employees. They show the existence of a positive relationship between proactive CC and employees' commitment. A recent industry survey indicated that 50% of American students want to work for a socially responsible company because of the subsequent opportunity for self-fulfillment and better morale (Barrett, 2000). Another poll showed that 27% of Swedish graduates (19% of French ones) invoke as criteria of choice of their future employer, the social utility of the company and 25% its commitment for environmental protection (Reverchon, 2000). Furthermore, according to the results of a survey of « the Conference Board », volunteer programs (discretionary citizenship) improved employees' productivity and morale, fostered team work, skill building and decision-making (Leonard, 1997).

However, past research in management has not examined directly how CC activities impact employees' OCB. In this paper, we argue that workers, as a category of company stakeholders, may react to CC by displaying OCB. This proposition is based on the idea that when a company shows its dedication to act as a responsible citizen, employees may commit themselves to act as exemplary organizational members. There exists a sort of psychological contract and implicit agreements between the company and its workers: employees exhibit citizenship because development of covenants with organizations based on mutual trust and shared values. Employees for whom an organization guarantees greater socioeconomic benefits are most likely to return the favor and to engage in behavior that protects the organization, increase its responsibilities and serves the whole, for instance in OCB (Graham, 1991, p. 260).

Figure 3 is not intended to provide a comprehensive understanding of the relationships between CC and OCB; instead the main purpose of this framework is to outline some core research questions. The following sections discuss solely the potential impact of CC on OCB and neglect the effect that OCB may have on CC. This scope is dictated by the limited directions provided by past research. Figure 3 suggests that CC is likely to lead to OCB by stimulating employees' (1) commitment, (2) social identification, and (3) perception of fairness.

Figure 3: Potential links between corporate citizenship and organizational citizenship behaviors.



From CC to OCB through organizational commitment

Scholars have taken an interest in the non-financial returns of using CC programs. Hunt, Wood and Chonko (1989, p. 85) show that “corporate ethical values may be a strong predictor of commitment”; Mowday (1998) suggests that organizations that possess strong values and cultures may enjoy a different bond with their employees than other organizations using market-based approaches to binding employees. By means of a managerial survey, Maignan, Ferrell and Hult (1999, p. 10) observed that “the more proactive the CC, the greater the employee commitment to the organization”. These findings suggest that CC is likely to generate stronger bonds between the organization and its employees, and induce increased employee commitment. Steers, Mowday and Porter (1982) characterize the organizational commitment by a) a belief in and acceptance of the organizational goals and values, b) a willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization, and c) the desire to maintain membership.

Personal attitudes, beliefs and life experience are likely to influence individual member citizens’ propensity to form strong relational ties with an organization (Graham, 1991, p. 263). Moreover, employees’ reactions to CC are contingent on the

amount of congruence or overlap they perceive between the company's character (its CSR activities) and their own values. Therefore, future research called for to investigate the following research question (RQ):

RQ 1: How do employees' evaluations of their organization's CC affect organizational commitment?

The second part of Steers, Mowday and Porter's definition of organizational commitment ("a willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization") suggests some dispositions or tendencies toward OCB (e.g., Brief and Motowidlo, 1986; Organ, 1988). Graham (1991, p. 262) argue that employees who are committed to a transcendent principle or organizing value are likely to use their political rights to pursue the common good (then displaying OCB). Moreover, some authors show that organizational commitment could be an important determinant of extra-role behaviors (e.g., Chen, Hui and Sego, 1998; MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne, 1998; Organ and Ryan, 1995). Accordingly, as suggested in the following RQ, CC may be conducive of OCB through increased organizational commitment.

RQ 2: How does organizational commitment affect OCB?

From CC to OCB through organizational identification

Organizational identification can be defined as the degree to which organizational members perceive themselves and the organization as sharing the same defining attributes (Dutton, Dukerich and Harquail, 1994). Scholars have demonstrated that people identify with organizations when they perceive an overlap between organizational attributes and individual attributes (Asforth and Mael, 1988; Tajfel and Turner, 1985). Organizational identification research draws on social identity theory (Tajfel and Turner, 1985) to suggest that people are more likely to identify with an

organization when they perceive its identity to be enduring, distinctive and capable of enhancing their self esteem. Ashfort and Mael (1989, p. 24) insist on the importance of “the distinctiveness of the group’s values and practices in relation to those of comparable groups” and the “prestige” of the group as drivers of employees’ organizational identification. Dutton, Dukerich and Harquail (1994) add another factor driving identification: the outsiders’ positive image of the organization. When employees perceive that positive image, they are more likely to identify with their employer.

Social identity theory (Ashfort and Mael, 1989; Dutton, Dukerich and Harquail, 1994; Tajfel and Turner, 1985) may provide a sound theoretical background to understand how employees’ evaluations of their organization’s CC translate into organizational identification. Firstly, organizational identification is affected by the perceived organizational identity or “what is perceived as distinctive, central and enduring in the organization” (Dutton, Dukerich and Harquail, 1994, p. 239). As argued by Sen and Bhattacharya (2001, p. 228), an organization’s character as revealed by its CC activities is “not only fundamental and relatively enduring but also often more distinctive” than other facets of corporate activities. Therefore, employees are likely to identify with CC companies, especially when values enacted by CC companies match employees’ self-identity (Tajfel and Turner, 1985).

Secondly, organizational identification is affected by the construed external image of the firm or “what a member believes outsiders think about the organization” (Dutton, Dukerich and Harquail, 1994, p. 239). As shown in literature (e.g., Turban and Greening, 1996; Fombrun and Shanley, 1990), good corporate citizens are likely to gain a positive reputation in the public. Employees feel then proud to belong and work for a company that is acknowledged for its positive contribution to society (Turban and

Greening, 1996; Brown and Dacin, 1997). Employees would rather be known to be working for a good citizen that contributes to the welfare of society than for a poor citizen that cares only for its own self.

In summary, as suggested in RQ 3, we expect companies' CC activities to affect employees' social identification. This proposition is probably moderated by employees' socio-demographic variables and values that are likely to influence the employees' perceptions of their relation with the organization (Graham, 1991). For instance, the degree of employees' concern for specific social issues will probably moderate the relation between CC and organizational identification.

RQ 3: How do employees' evaluations of their organization's CC affect social identification?

Some research findings suggest that employees who identify to their organization are more likely to support the organization beyond their normal in-role requirements and to exhibit OCB. Ashforth and Mael (1989, p. 26) propose that social identification would have an impact on "organizational commitment, altruism, cooperation, intra-group cohesion, loyalty to and pride in the group and its activities". Similarly, Tomer (1998, p. 834) shows that "when employees identified themselves with the organization and shared its goals and values, they realize higher citizenship efforts and higher organizational productivity". Stronger identification with an organization enhances organization-relevant citizenship behaviors (Bergami and Bagozzi, 2000; Dutton, Dukerich and Harquail, 1994).

RQ 4: How does social identification affect OCB?

From CC to OCB through perceived fairness

Some scholars have suggested that individuals who are treated with respect and fairness are likely to react positively, by showing goodwill toward the organization (Fahr, Podsakoff and Organ, 1990; Moorman, 1991; Swanson and Niehoff, 2001). Our assumption is that a company dedicated to displaying CC behaviors is much more able to create a friendly, fair and supportive climate in the organization and to induce perceptions of fair treatment among employees (especially if CC activities include employees' issues such as improving working conditions, establishing fair wages and non discrimination policies).

RQ 5: How do employees' evaluations of their organization's CC affect their perceptions of fairness?

As underlined in RQ 6, we assume that perception of fairness are likely to affect employees' OCB. A first explanation of this proposed link is provided by the norm of reciprocity (e.g., Gouldner, 1960). This norm assumes that employees should help those who have helped them. Employees tend, under certain circumstances, to reciprocate the positive treatment they receive from the organization. In such situations, there is an important probability of observing OCB (e.g., Brief and Motowidlo, 1986; George and Bettenhausen, 1990; Niehoff and Moorman, 1993; Settoon, Bennett and Liden, 1996). Secondly, the equity theory (e.g., Adams, 1965) suggests that perceptions of job and pay equity (which are likely to exist in good citizen companies) is significantly correlated with extra-role behaviors (e.g., Scholl, Cooper and McKenna 1987; Fahr, Podsakoff and Organ 1990; Moorman 1991).

RQ 6: How do employees' perceptions of fairness affect OCB?

CONCLUSIONS

The paper's objectives were firstly to propose a clearer image of the corporate and organizational citizenship concepts, since these constructs have been studied by different authors using different perspectives. In a second step, a comparison between OCB and CC was conducted and areas of similarities and dissimilarities were outlined. This paper shows that the initiators, beneficiaries and objectives of OCB and CC are different, which is sufficient to conclude that these behaviors are really distinct. In the last part, potential links between CC and OCB have been proposed on the basis of the existing literature about the antecedents and outcomes of each kind of behaviors.

We argue that CC is unlikely to be widely embraced by organization unless it yields concrete business benefits. This paper proposes that CC may help organizations market themselves to internal customers – employees. We establish propositions that present relations useful to understand how employees evaluate CC and how they respond to CC. Of course, additional theoretical frameworks could certainly be useful in explaining the relation between CC and OCB.

As a whole, future research on employees' reactions to their organization's CC will help establish the value of CC as a form of internal marketing. Marketing research on employees' assessment of their organization's CC could help business design constructive social involvement programs and internal communication. If the proposed relationships can be supported empirically, then CC could be considered as a way of promoting the organization to its members and OCB can be seen as a desirable outcome of CC. In addition, CC programs could lead (through OCB) to increased organizational effectiveness, performance and success (Podsakoff, Ahearne and MacKenzie, 1997; Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1994, 1997; Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Ahearne, 1998; Walz and Niehoff, 1996). CC may also contribute to creating, maintaining and

improving customer relations and satisfaction (MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne, 1998; Walz and Niehoff, 1996); it may further reduce voluntary turnover rate among employees because of the group attractiveness and cohesiveness (e.g., George and Bettenhausen, 1990). These benefits are far from being insignificant in the present context of intensive competition and they illustrate the utility to communicate CC goals to employees and other stakeholders (customers, media, government). Such benefits would perhaps encourage reluctant businesses to acknowledge CC as a worthwhile investment. Finally, this paper calls for a better integration and cross-fertilization of the research streams investigating organizational and corporate citizenship respectively.

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